



## Hydrogen sulfide-resilient anodes for molten carbonate fuel cells

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### H I G H L I G H T S

- Systematical study of Fe introduction into conventional Ni–Al anode.
- Improvement of creep resistance and tolerance to H<sub>2</sub>S.
- High long term stability of cell with low voltage loss of ca. 5 mV.
- Significant recovery of the modified anodes from H<sub>2</sub>S poisoning effect.

### A R T I C L E I N F O

#### Article history:

Received 29 September 2012

Received in revised form

10 December 2012

Accepted 12 December 2012

Available online 31 December 2012

#### Keywords:

Molten carbonate fuel cell

Anode

Creep resistance

Electro-chemical performance

### A B S T R A C T

Nickel aluminum (Ni–Al) alloy anodes have become the preferred choice in anode material and have received widespread attention in molten carbonate fuel cell (MCFC) research due to their high durability and effectiveness in resisting creep of stack loadings. They are, however, susceptible to hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S) poisoning, which results in pore compression and rapid reduction of active sites for the electro-catalytic reaction. In this work, iron is introduced into a conventional Ni–Al anode to improve the creep resistance and tolerance to H<sub>2</sub>S. Anodes containing 30 wt.% Fe have a low creep strain of ca. 3%, but their creep resistance is much better than that of standard anodes. Single cells operated stably over 1000 h with a low voltage loss of ca. 5 mV. When exposed to H<sub>2</sub>S, the modified anode exhibited excellent recovery from the poisoning effect.

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## 1. Introduction

Ni–Cr is a state-of-the-art anode material for modern MCFC systems [1]. Ni–Cr also reportedly, however, ‘consumes’ electrolytes when lithiation occurs in the system. Therefore, Ni–Al has become the preferred choice in anode material selection and has received widespread attention due to its high durability and effectiveness in resisting the creep of stack loadings [2–7].

Because MCFCs have high operating temperatures (923 K), natural gas, coal gas and bio-fuels are some of the fuel options for anodes. These fuels contain a variety of contaminants and impurities, such as sulfur compounds (H<sub>2</sub>S, COS, etc.), halides, tars, dust, ammonia, and soloxanes. It is known that H<sub>2</sub>S is the most harmful impurity for cell performance. The total sulfur content of pipeline

natural gas is on the order of 10–80 ppm, with 4 ppm H<sub>2</sub>S and 4 ppm mercaptans [8]. The hydrogen sulfide concentration in bio-fuels such as landfill gas or anaerobic digestion product gas can be as much as 200 ppm [9,10]. The product gases from coal gasification typically contain 0.1–1% or more H<sub>2</sub>S [11]. Before they are used in MCFCs, first stage cleanup processes are applied, during which the tolerance limit of H<sub>2</sub>S concentration for MCFCs varies from 0.01 ppm to less than 10 ppm [12–14]. The tolerance limit of H<sub>2</sub>S, however, depends on the technology, operating conditions and hydrogen gas concentration. If the cleanup processes are not properly completed, higher amounts of hydrogen sulfide gas (>10 ppm) can severely poison the anode material.

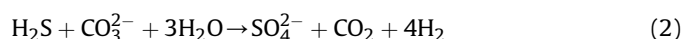
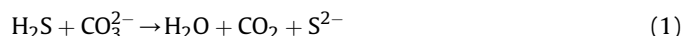
Due to a very low dissociation barrier of Ni with H<sub>2</sub>S, the rapidly strong absorption of H<sub>2</sub>S on an anode surface has been found [15,16] to block the active sites, cover the pore network, increase cell polarization, change the wettability of the electrolyte, and thus degrade the cell performance [17–20]. In the presence of H<sub>2</sub>S, the reactions that occur in the electrolyte and anode are as follows:

With electrolyte

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with anode



Under MCFC working conditions, Al in the Ni-based matrix diffuses out from the anode surface to react with water vapor and form an oxide layer. This alumina layer functions as a protective layer and inhibits impurity invasions from materials such as oxygen, carbon or sulfur [21–23]. It is not sufficient, however, to stop the effects of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  poisoning. It is well-known that  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  is an excellent desulfurization reagent for  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  removal from waste gas or natural gas at high temperatures [24]. The effect of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  when water is present during  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  regeneration has been discussed [25,26], and studying the effects of Fe incorporated into conventional MCFC anodes on the resistance to  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  poisoning is meaningful.

In this work, a Ni–Al–Fe alloy anode is prepared. Fe is introduced not only because of its excellent desulfurization capability, but also because of its ability to facilitate hydrogen diffusion [27–30]. In order for the newly fabricated Ni–Al–Fe alloy anode to function properly, it must improve creep resistance, tolerate  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  poisoning and improve overall electro-chemical performance. All of these factors are evaluated using a single cell test.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Anode fabrication

The raw material for anode tape casting was prepared by mixing Ni-5 wt% Al powder (Twin Energy, >99%, 3–5  $\mu\text{m}$ ) with various contents (10–30 wt.%) of Fe powder (>99%, 3–5  $\mu\text{m}$ ) and Ni powder (Inco type 255, >99%, 3–5  $\mu\text{m}$ ). The green anode sheet prepared by tape casting was sintered at 1223 K under an  $\text{H}_2/\text{N}_2$  (10/90) atmosphere for 0.5 h to prepare the alloy. The anode without the addition of Fe was designated as 0Fe sample; the anodes with 10 wt.% and 30 wt.% Fe content were designated as 10Fe and 30Fe, respectively. The basic characteristics of the as-prepared anodes were characterized using X-ray diffraction (XRD, MiniFlex II, Rigaku), a scanning electron microscope combined with an energy dispersive spectrometer (ESEM/EDS, XL300, Philip) and an electron probe micro-analyzer (EPMA, JXA-8500F, Jeol). The process of the American Society for Testing and Materials (ASTM C373-88) was followed when testing the sample porosity.

### 2.2. Creep test system

Creep resistance of the sintered anode Ni–Al–Fe was evaluated in a creep test system designed to control anode chamber conditions. A sintered anode of size ( $1 \times 1 \times 0.07$ )  $\text{cm}^3$  was inserted between the stainless steel plates on the support rod in the lower space of the creep test equipment. After heating from room temperature, the temperature in the sample chamber was maintained at 923 K under anode gas conditions ( $\text{H}_2/\text{CO}_2$  humidified with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  at 323 K) for several hours to allow for the necessary thermal expansion inside the support rod and the ceramic rod. One hundred psi of air was applied to the sintered anode for 100 h, and the thickness variation of the electrode was measured using the micro-thickness gauge attached to the equipment. Creep strains of the as-prepared samples were calculated from the creep ratio equation [2,3].

### 2.3. Single cell test

Single cells using sintered Ni–Al–Fe anodes with an effective area of 100  $\text{cm}^2$  were operated at 923 K. A lithiated NiO cathode,  $\alpha$ - $\text{LiAlO}_2$  matrix, and the  $(\text{Li}_{0.7}/\text{K}_{0.3})_2\text{CO}_3$  electrolyte sheet prepared by tape casting were used. A mixture of air:  $\text{CO}_2 = 70:30$  was supplied as the cathode gas, and a mixture of  $\text{H}_2/\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O} = 72:18:10$  was used as the anode gas. The  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  content of the anode gas was supplied using an evaporator humidified at 323 K. The flow rate of the reaction gas was fixed to maintain a fuel–air ratio of 0.4. The open-circuit voltage (OCV), current density–voltage ( $I$ – $V$ ) characteristics, ohmic resistance and amount of nitrogen cross-over were measured to evaluate the performance of the single cell. The cell performance was evaluated by measuring the cell voltage at various current densities. A DC current was applied to the cell using an electric loader (ELTO DC Electronics Co., ESL300Z). To analyze the electrode polarization and ohmic resistance, electro-chemical impedance analysis (EIS) was carried out in the open circuit voltage condition (OCV) using a Solartron S11287 and 1260B. The frequency range of the present EIS experiment was 10,000–0.01 Hz.

### 2.4. Short-term $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ poisoning test

After the single cell reached stabilization, 20 ppm of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  ( $\text{H}_2$  balance) was introduced in the anode gas for 100 h under loading at 150  $\text{mA cm}^{-2}$  of current density. Then,  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  feeding to the anode was stopped, and the single cell was maintained in an OCV state at 150  $\text{mA cm}^{-2}$  of current density for 72 h, the so-called “regeneration” step. Then,  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  concentrations of 50 ppm, 100 ppm and 150 ppm were fed into the anode gas stream using the same settings. The single cell performance was monitored and recorded. The single cell polarization was measured by an electro-chemical impedance analysis after each step at open circuit voltage (OCV) conditions. In post-test analysis, the samples were examined using an ESEM/EDX, EPMA and ASTM C373-88.

### 2.5. Out of cell test

Pure Ni and Ni-50 wt.% Fe samples of small-size ( $1 \times 2 \times 0.07$ )  $\text{cm}^3$  were exposed to a 100 ppm  $\text{H}_2\text{S}/\text{H}_2$  gas stream either without water vapor (the dry condition) or with water vapor (the wet condition) in a tubular reactor at 923 K for 100 h. In the wet condition, 10 vol.% of water vapor was supplied into the reactor with the simulated anode reactant gas in the MCFC. The anode surface was analyzed by EPMA after the test.

## 3. Results and discussion

Porosity and pore diameter are important factors that significantly affect mass transfer and cell performance [1]. The porosity and mean pore diameter of the sintered anodes with varying iron contents are shown in Table 1. The microstructural properties of the modified anodes are similar to those of the conventional anode (0Fe). It was expected that the mass transfer process would not change after modification with Fe. The XRD patterns for the samples at wide (Fig. 1a) and narrow (Fig. 1b) angles are presented

**Table 1**

The physical properties of conventional and modified anodes used in this work.

Sample	Porosity (%)	Pore diameter ( $\mu\text{m}$ )
0Fe (Ni-40 wt.% NiAl)	62	3
10Fe (Ni-40 wt.% NiAl-10 wt.% Fe)	65	3.3
30Fe (Ni-40 wt.% NiAl-30 wt.% Fe)	63	3.4

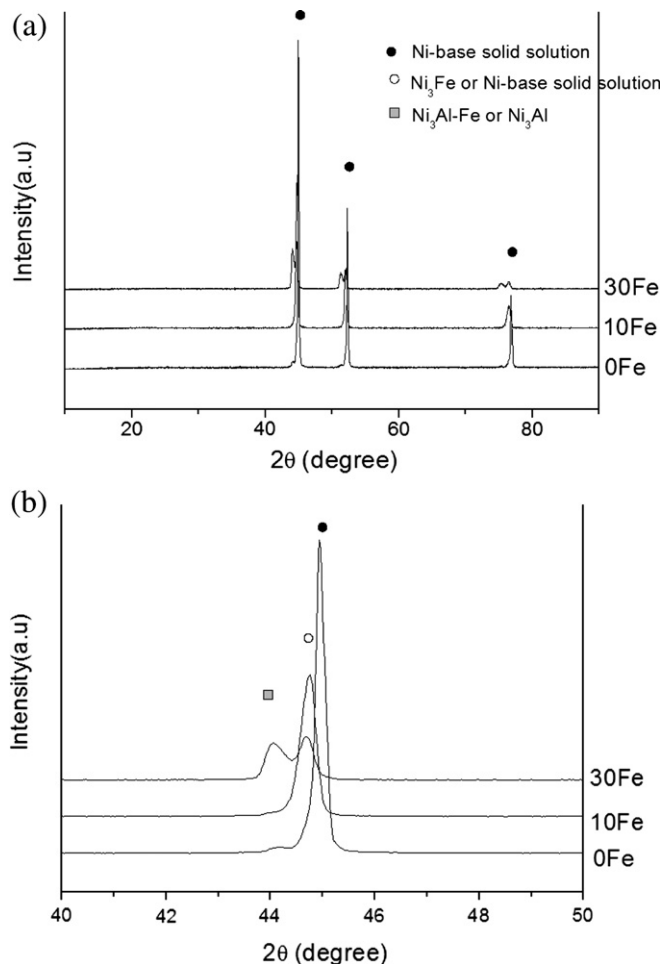


Fig. 1. X-ray diffraction pattern of as-prepared NiAl–xFe anodes in (a) wide angle view and (b) narrow angle view.

in Fig. 1. After the addition of Fe, the specific peaks of the anode samples are shifted to a smaller theta angle because of the different atomic radii of Fe (140 pm) [31], Ni (135 pm) [31,32] and Al (125 pm) [31,33]. According to Bragg's law, the replacement of Fe into the Ni–Ni matrix or the Ni–Al matrix would increase the

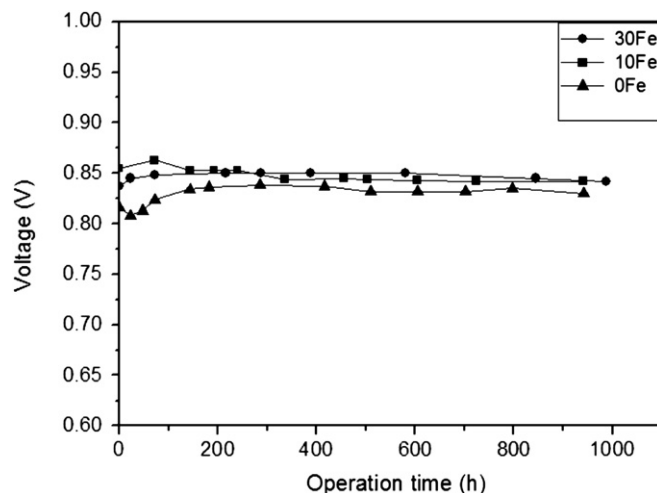


Fig. 3. Single cell performance of NiAl–xFe anodes as a function of operation time. The operation temperature and current density were fixed at 923 K and  $150 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ , respectively.

distance between the two atoms, resulting in a shifting of the peak to a smaller theta angle (Fig. 1b). Anode samples with 10 wt.% Fe exhibited a disordered  $\text{Ni}_3\text{Fe}$  phase. As the Fe content is increased to 30 wt.%, a less disordered  $\text{Ni}_3\text{Al–Fe}$  phase is identified.

The phase stability of ordered  $\text{Ni}_3\text{Al}$  at high temperatures of up to 1603 K has been reported previously [34]. The activation energy of Fe diffusion into  $\text{Ni}_3\text{Al}$  has been found to be lower than that of Ni into  $\text{Ni}_3\text{Al}$  [35,36] and Fe entering the Al sub-lattice of ordered  $\text{Ni}_3\text{Al}$  [37,38]. The existence of an order/disorder transition region for  $\text{Ni}_3\text{Al–Ni}_3\text{Fe}$  with Fe content below 25 wt.% in the temperature range 200–1800 K [39] or with a disordered  $\text{Ni}_3\text{Fe}$  phase occurring at ca. 776 K [40,41] has been reported by several researchers.

In this work, different amounts of Fe were found to create different phases, giving rise to different levels of creep resistance, as shown in Fig. 2. Samples with higher Fe content exhibited better creep resistance due to the diffusion of Fe into the Ni–Al system, which led to solid solution formation and improved the yield strength of the material [34–37]. When the Fe content was increased, the combination of an ordered  $\text{Ni}_3\text{Al–Fe}$  phase and a disordered  $\text{Ni}_3\text{Fe}$  phase enhanced the strength of the grain boundary, which significantly depressed the flow stress diffusion.

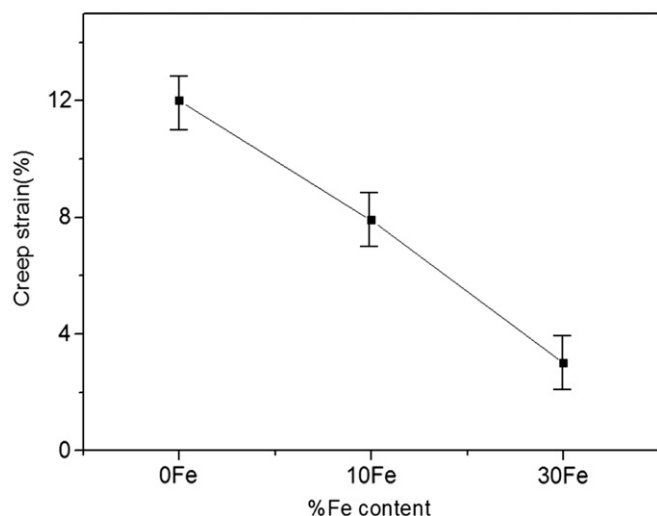


Fig. 2. Creep strain behavior of NiAl–xFe anodes at 923 K over 100 h under loading of 100 psi of a mixture gas ( $\text{H}_2$ ,  $\text{CO}_2$ ) humidified with water at 323 K.

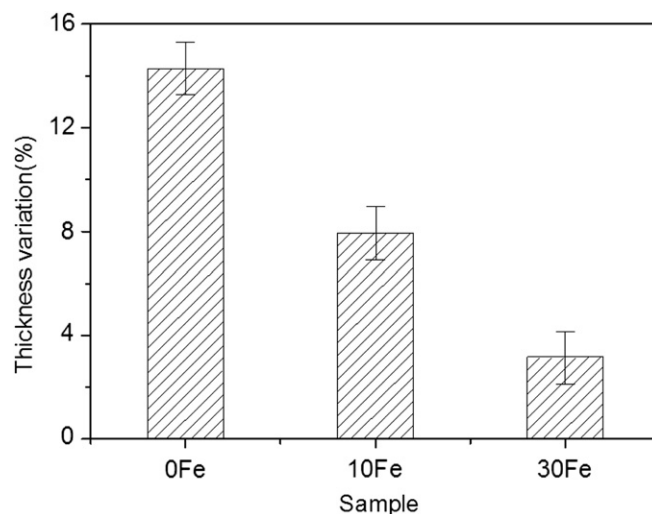


Fig. 4. Thickness variation behavior of the modified anodes after a single cell test at 923 K for 1000 h.



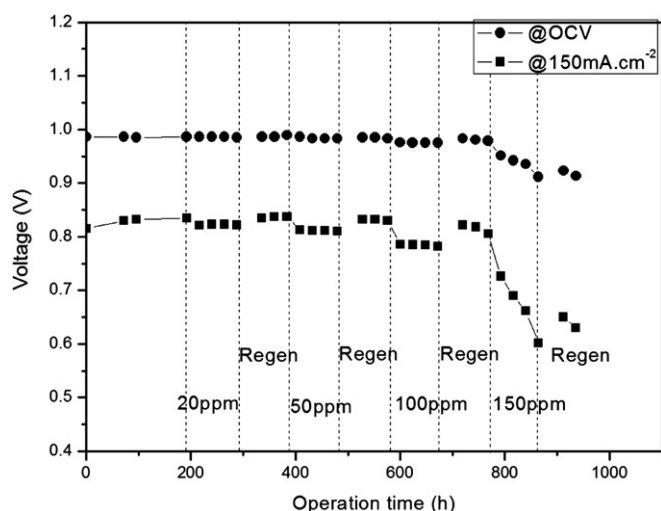


Fig. 5. Single cell performance of 0Fe anodes under  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  short-term poisoning as a function of operation time and  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  concentration.

This resulted in a decrease of the bending moment at necked grains known to affect the creep strain behavior of porous anodes [2,3].

Single cell performances using three different anode samples are shown in Fig. 3. All single cells achieved stable voltage gain greater than  $0.8 \text{ V}$  at  $150 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ . The instability in the initial stage of operation is normal and was due to electrolyte redistribution in the matrix and the electrode, the lithiation reaction at the cathode side and creep loading at the anode side [42,43]. The voltage losses in the 10Fe and 30Fe single cells were  $3 \text{ mV}$  per  $1000 \text{ h}$  and  $5 \text{ mV}$  per  $1000 \text{ h}$ , respectively. These values are significantly lower than that for 0Fe ( $20 \text{ mV}$  per  $1000 \text{ h}$ ). In post-test analysis, the variations in the thickness of the anodes were analyzed, and the results are shown in Fig. 4. It is obvious that the modified anodes show less variation than the non-modified anodes, meaning that the high creep-resistant anode maintained its own pore structure during cell operation. Therefore, long-term stability with lower voltage loss was reasonably achieved.

The effect of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  on single cell performance with a conventional anode is shown in Fig. 5. Different  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  concentrations were supplied to the anode during the test. It is clear that the presence of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  in the cell degraded the overall cell voltage. At higher concentrations, greater voltage drop is observed. Cell performance after the introduction of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  consisted of two stages. Immediately after the introduction of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ , the voltage drops rapidly, followed by stabilization over  $100 \text{ h}$  of operation. The rapid voltage drop is due to instantaneous  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  physical absorption onto the Ni surface without nickel sulfide formation [44]. This poisons the active sites, resulting in the immediate decrease in performance. The stabilization of the cell voltage in the second stage is observed [17,20] when a hot  $\text{H}_2$  stream is continuously fed into the cell, the sulfur is partially removed, and the anodes are regenerated. Although recovery of cell performance is achieved after supplying the cell with cleaner fuel, lower voltages are obtained due to the poisoning effect at the anode, as described in Equations (3) and (4) above. As the operation progresses, stable chemical bonding of Ni and  $\text{S}^{2-}$  anions creates nickel sulfide compounds [45–47] at the active sites, causing the voltage to degrade further. The severity of the poisoning on the anode depends on the  $\text{H}_2\text{S}/\text{H}_2$  ratio, as observed in this study and reported previously [20,48]. Therefore, as the  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  concentration is increased, greater voltage loss is observed. At  $150 \text{ ppm}$   $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ , a marked cell voltage dropped is observed. This decrease is not recovered with the supply of cleaner  $\text{H}_2$  fuel.

The sulfur distribution on the conventional anode surfaces measured using EPMA mapping after heat-treatment at  $923 \text{ K}$  for  $100 \text{ h}$  in an  $\text{H}_2$  atmosphere with  $100 \text{ ppm}$   $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  is shown in Fig. 6. The first image (top left) identifies two possible phases in the conventional Ni–Al anode with bright and dark patterns. The dark pattern represents Al-rich sites (the second image in a clockwise direction), whereas the bright pattern represents the Ni–Al phase with Al-lean sites (third image in a clockwise direction). Higher amounts of sulfur were deposited on the bright sites (Al-lean sites), while less sulfur was deposited on the dark sites (Al-rich sites). This is reportedly due to the fact that the adsorption and dissociation rates of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  on  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  are much slower because of the large band gap in the oxide, resulting in difficult mixing with the  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  orbital [49]. It is possible that the alumina formed on the Ni–Al alloy inhibited the

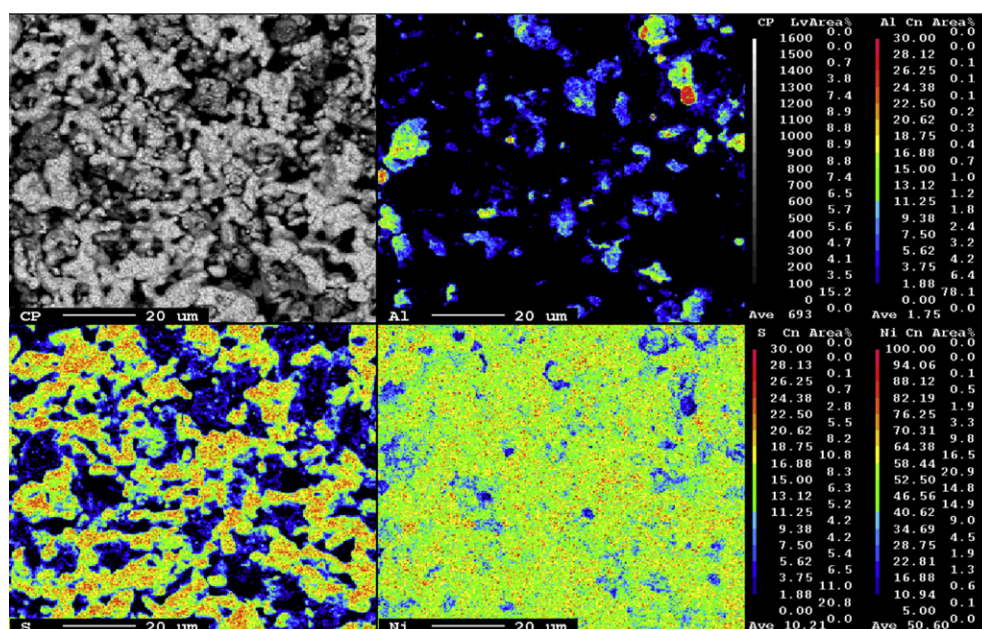


Fig. 6. EPMA mapping images of a 0Fe sample heat-treated at  $923 \text{ K}$  for  $100 \text{ h}$  in an  $\text{H}_2$  atmosphere with  $100 \text{ ppm}$   $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ .

interaction of Ni and S and the penetration of S into the Ni matrix under the poisoning state. In the MCFC anode, the Al diffused on the anode surface becomes an  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  layer [23]. This layer depressed the interaction of Ni and S and prevented severe poisoning of the active sites. This explains the steady cell performance even after degradation by  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  at low concentrations (Fig. 5). It is found that Al in the Ni–Al alloy played an important role in depressing the  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  poisoning effect. Depressing the  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  poisoning effect by the mere addition of Al was not sufficient, however, especially when the concentration of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  was high.

Cell performance using modified anodes with Fe under short-term  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  poisoning is shown in Fig. 7(a and b). The cell voltage performance after  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  exposure is not different from that of the conventional cell. The level of the voltage drop in the former cell using the modified anodes is much lower than that of the latter cell, however. A marked difference is observed at 150 ppm  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ . The cell maintains its performance over 100 h of operation. The voltage drop as a function of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  concentration is presented in Fig. 8, which also compares the voltage drop from the two types of cells. The voltage drop for the 10Fe and 30Fe samples were 35 mV and 38 mV at  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  concentrations of 100 ppm, respectively, whereas the voltage drop for the standard anode cell was 45 mV. At a higher  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  concentration of 150 ppm, the modified anode cells suffered voltage drop of ca. 50–60 mV, while the voltage drop in the conventional cell was not obtainable because the voltage read 0 V as soon as 150 ppm  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  was introduced. This shows that

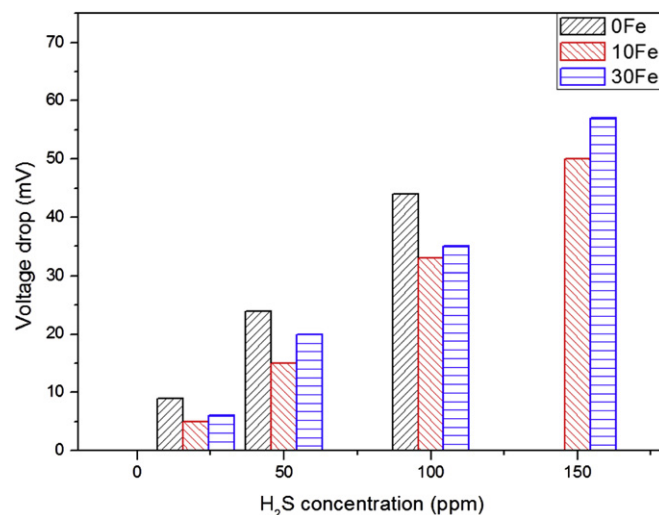
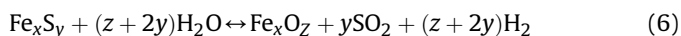


Fig. 8. Voltage decreases of cells with 0Fe, 10Fe and 30Fe anodes at different  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  concentrations after short-term  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  poisoning.

the modified anode could tolerate  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  poisoning even at high concentrations.

During cell operation, the Fe in the anode was easily oxidized into  $\text{Fe}_x\text{O}_y$  as Al diffused on the anode surface to form an  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  layer [23]. The oxygen partial pressure for the oxide formation of Fe ( $10^{-8}$ – $10^{-9}$  Pa at 923 K) was relatively low [50]. In the MCFC anode, oxidizing Fe was even easier in the presence of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{CO}_2$ . Iron oxide has been applied in desulfurization processes at high temperatures [24,51,52]. Iron sulfide has also been used as an active catalyst for  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  decomposition in rich  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  gas streams or under the presence of high concentrations of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and low concentrations of  $\text{O}_2$  [53,54]. Sasaoka et al. [25,26] indicated that  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  directly contributed to the oxidation of iron oxides and the presence of  $\text{O}_2$  accelerated oxidative regeneration. Devianto et al. [18] found that higher water concentrations can decrease the  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  poisoning effect.

In this work, a sintered Ni–50 wt.% Fe sample was exposed to 100 ppm  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  at 923 K for 100 h under both dry and wet conditions in order to study the interaction between Ni–Fe and  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ . The dispersion of sulfur on the surfaces of Ni–50 wt.% Fe was examined using EPMA, and the results are displayed in Fig. 9. More sulfur was detected in the sample exposed to  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  in the dry condition than that in the wet condition. Practically, water vapor of 10 vol.% was supplied with a hot, rich  $\text{H}_2$  gas stream to prevent carbon coking. The results from the out of cell tests under the wet conditions were similar to those found in practice. Possible reactions explaining the reduction of sulfur on the anode surface in the Fe modified anode are as follows:



First, S is rapidly dissociated from  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ , and the former is adsorbed onto the iron oxide at the anode according to reaction (5) [24,51].  $\text{Fe}_x\text{S}_y$  then reacts with water vapor to produce  $\text{SO}_2$  and returns to its initial state as iron oxide, as described by the reversible reaction (6). It was apparent that iron sulfide was oxidized back to iron oxide more favorably under the wet conditions than under the dry conditions. As a result, the amount of S coverage on the modified anode surface was significantly reduced, providing a reasonable explanation for the positive effect of Fe addition on  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  poisoning.

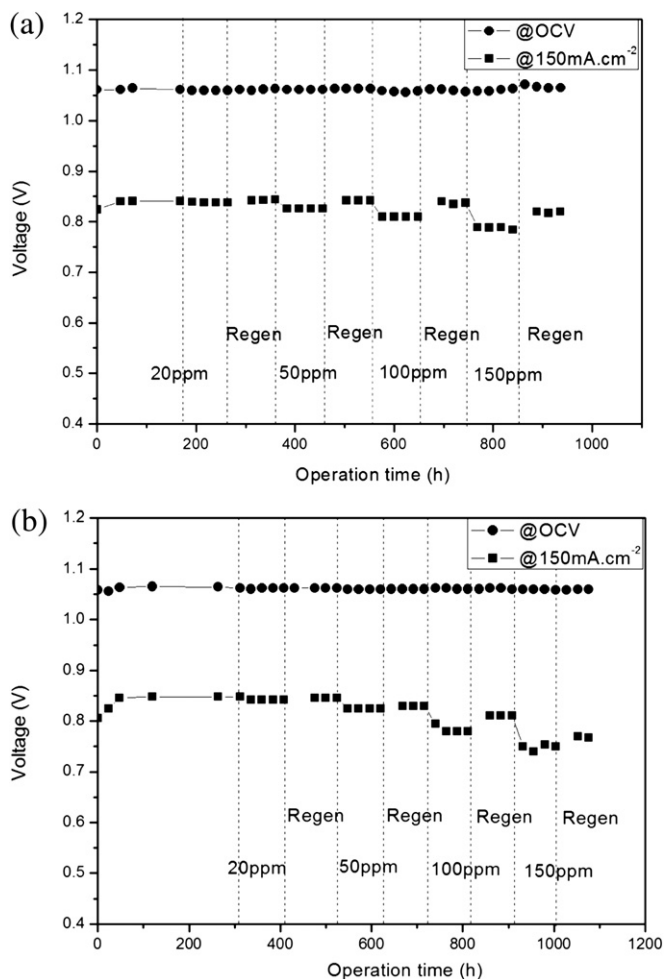
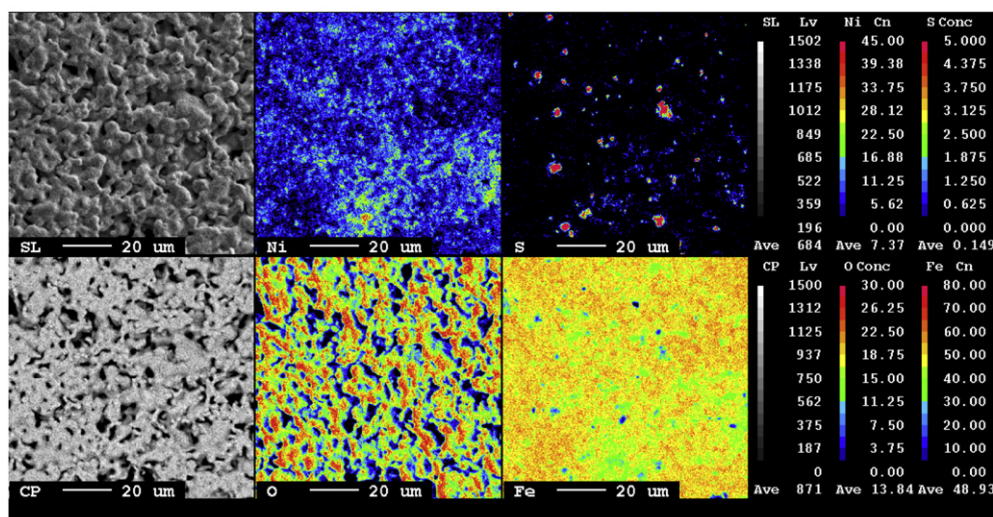


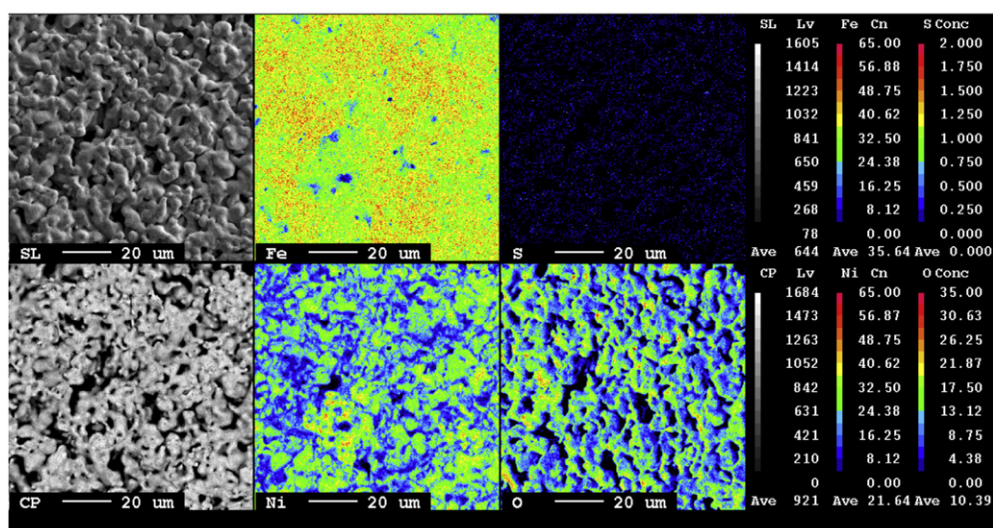
Fig. 7. Single cell performance of (a) a 10Fe anode and (b) a 30Fe anode under  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  short-term poisoning as a function of operation time and  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  concentration.



(a) Ni-50Fe - dry condition

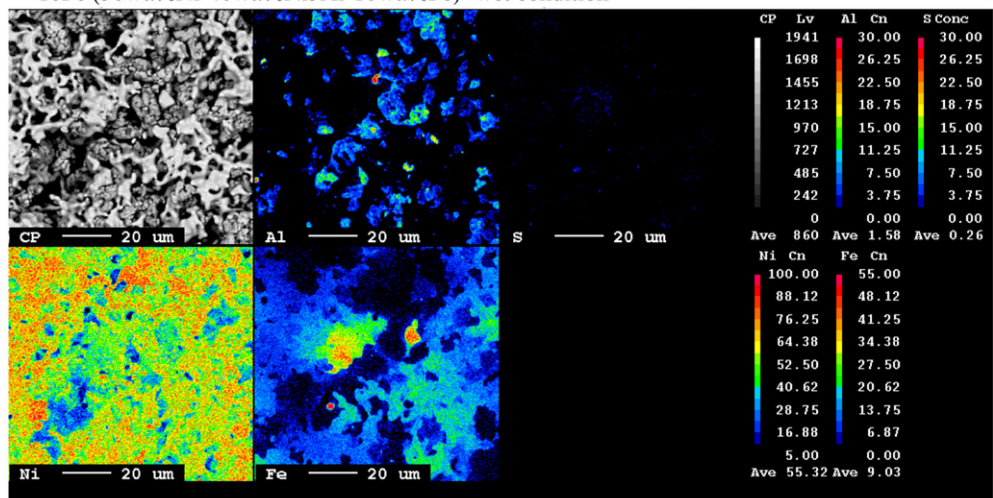


(b) Ni-50Fe - wet condition

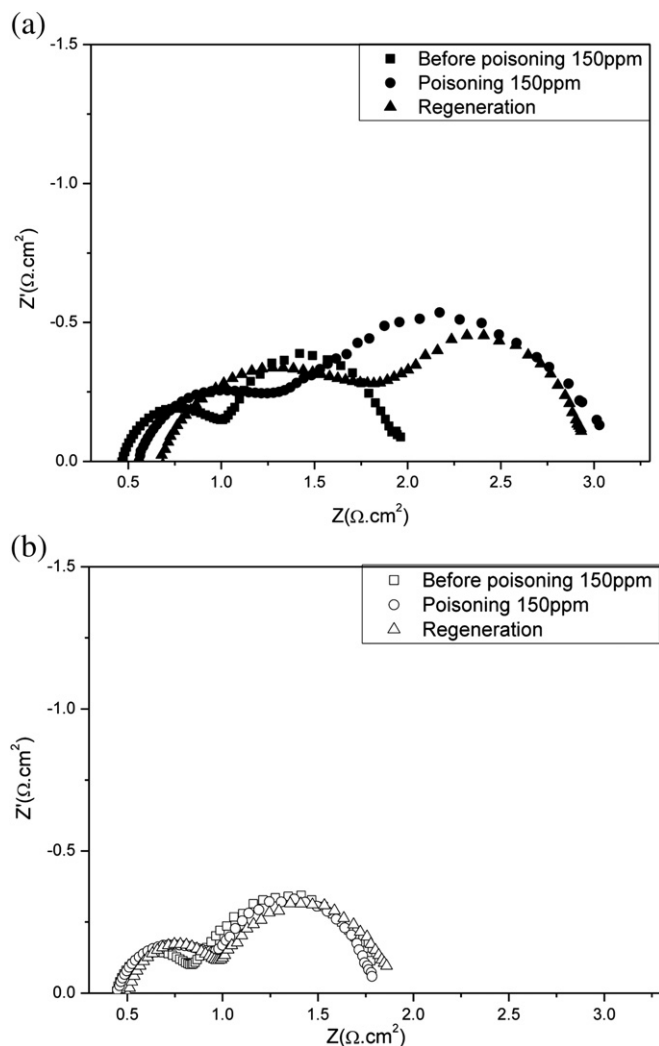


**Fig. 9.** EPMA mapping images of (a) Ni-50 wt.% Fe plate heat-treated under dry conditions and (b) Ni-50 wt.% Fe plate heat-treated under wet conditions with 100 ppm H<sub>2</sub>S at 923 K for 100 h.

10Fe (50wt.%Ni-40wt.%Ni5Al-10wt.%Fe)- wet condition



**Fig. 10.** EPMA mapping images of 10Fe anodes heat-treated under wet conditions with 100 ppm H<sub>2</sub>S at 923 K for 100 h.



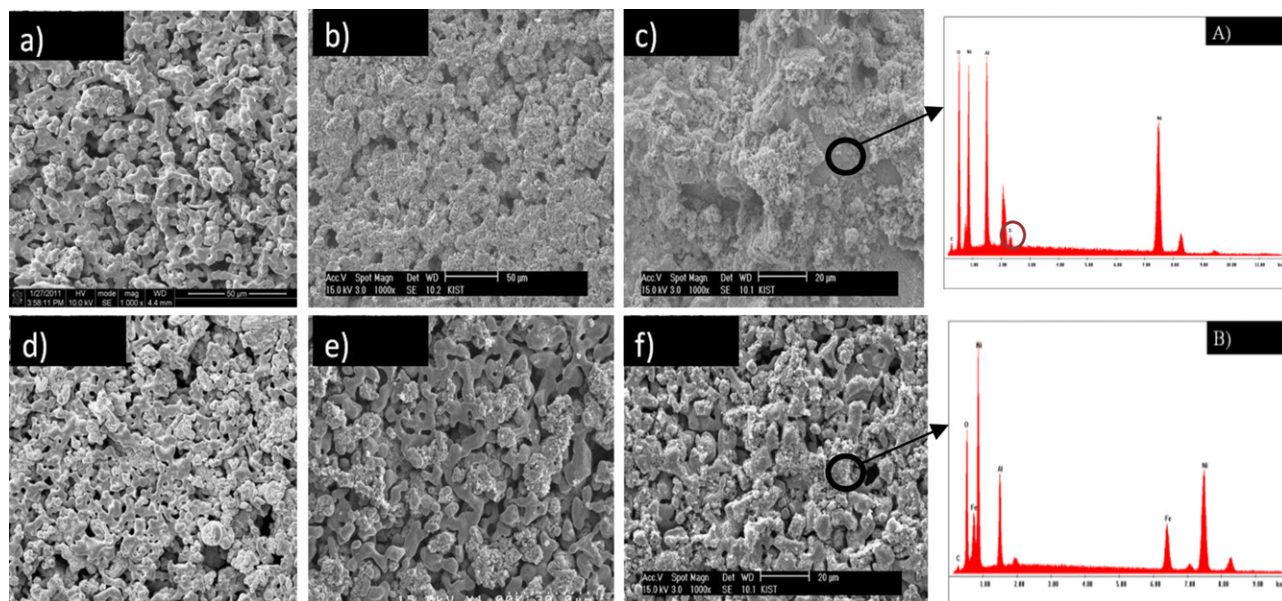
**Fig. 11.** Electrochemical impedance spectra in cells with (a) 0Fe and (b) 30Fe anodes under three conditions: before poisoning, during poisoning (with 150 ppm  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ ) and during regeneration during the single cell test.

The sulfur distribution on the 10Fe anode exposed to 100 ppm  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  at 923 K for 100 h under the wet conditions is shown in Fig. 10. Little sulfur is detected in the sample, confirming the earlier results that sulfur poisoning could be successfully prevented if Fe is incorporated into the standard anode.

Fig. 11 shows the cell polarizations for the 0Fe and 30Fe anodes in three different conditions: before poisoning at 150 ppm, during the poisoning stage and during the regeneration stage. Since the system consisted of an identical matrix (i.e., the electrolyte and cathode were in a single cell), the variation in cell polarization was presumably caused by changes in anode polarization. Generally, the EIS curve shows two semi-circles: the first semi-circle relates to the charge transfer resistance, and the other represents the mass transfer resistance [55,56]. The polarizations of the cells show similar behaviors: they increase during the poisoning period and decrease back to the pre-poisoning position during regeneration. As shown in Fig. 11(a), significant increases in both charge transfer resistance and mass transfer resistance in the 0Fe anode cell were observed. When  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  was introduced together with the anode reactant gas, the  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  was immediately absorbed on the surface of the 0Fe anode, poisoning the active sites and causing the charge transfer resistance to increase. The anode pores were also blocked due to the formation of nickel sulfide compounds [15–20,57], resulting in an increase in the mass transfer resistance. Despite regeneration, the polarization curve did not return to its initial condition (i.e., before poisoning).

For the 30Fe anode, the polarization after  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  poisoning was much smaller for the 0Fe anode, as shown in Fig. 11(b). The polarization after regeneration was also insignificant. This is further evident by the fact that Fe-modified anodes are capable of tolerating  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  poisoning by effectively decomposing the  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  and maintaining the anode structural integrity.

The surface morphologies of the 0Fe and 30Fe anodes under several conditions are shown in Fig. 12. The SEM images of the 0Fe and 30Fe anodes prior to the cell test are shown in Fig. 12(a) and (d), respectively. The SEM images of the 0Fe and 30Fe anodes after cell operation without  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  poisoning are shown in Fig. 12(b) and (e), respectively. The SEM images and the EDS results for the 0Fe and 30Fe anodes after cell operation with  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  poisoning are shown in Fig. 12(c) and (f), respectively. As shown in Fig. 11(b) and (e), the 0Fe



**Fig. 12.** SEM images of 0Fe and 30Fe: (a), (d) before the single cell test; (b), (e) after the single cell test without  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  poisoning; (c), (f) after the single cell test with  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  poisoning.



anode suffered severe creep loading compared to the 30Fe anode after cell operation. The pore structural integrity of the modified anode was maintained despite H<sub>2</sub>S poisoning, as shown in Fig. 12(c), while the pore structure of the standard anode presented in Fig. 12(f) is severely collapsed. The EDS results show that S was detected in the 0Fe sample after cell operation with H<sub>2</sub>S poisoning. S was not detected in the 30Fe sample after cell operation with H<sub>2</sub>S poisoning. The collapse phenomenon of the pore structure in the 0Fe anode after cell operation with H<sub>2</sub>S poisoning was caused by the formation of nickel sulfide. The reductions in the Ni grain boundary strength and tensile strength due to sulfur segregation to the Ni grain boundary resulting in easy cracking have been reported previously [58]. For the modified anode, however, the pore structure was maintained because nickel sulfide was not formed due to the catalytic ability of iron oxide to decompose and oxidize H<sub>2</sub>S to form SO<sub>2</sub>. The SEM and EDS results confirmed the EIS behaviors of single cells using 0Fe and 30Fe anodes, respectively (Fig. 11).

#### 4. Conclusions

Despite being susceptible to the poisoning effect of H<sub>2</sub>S, anodes containing Fe are found to be more resilient than the anodes that did not contain Fe. The Fe anodes recover more quickly and deposit less sulfur over the cell test operation period. The presence of Fe in the anode samples significantly improves the creep resistance, leading to an overall improvement in cell test performance. Therefore, the Ni–Al–Fe anodes proposed in this study are recommended for MCFCs that are fueled by hydrogen containing traces of sulfur compounds such as hydrogen sulfide or carbonyl sulfide.

#### Acknowledgments

This research was supported by the Renewable Energy R&D Program of the Korea Institute of Energy Technology Evaluation and Planning (KETEP) grant funded by the Ministry of Knowledge Economy, Republic of Korea (No. 20113030030040).

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